MINERS' & FARMERS' JOURNAL.

PRINTED AND PUBLISHED EVERY WEDNESDAY, BY NOBLE & HOLTON....CHARLOTTE, MECKLENBURG COUNTY, NORTH-CAROLINA.

I WILL TEACH YOU TO PIERCE THE BOWELS OF THE EARTH AND BRING OUT FROM THE CAVERNS OF THE MOUNTAINS, METALS WHICH WILL GIVE STRENGTH TO OUR HANDS AND SUBJECT ALL NATURE TO OUR USE AND PLEASURE.—DR. JOHNSON.

VOL. I. WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 31, 1831. NO. 49.

THE
Miners' & Farmers' Journal

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ADVERTISEMENTS will be inserted at *Fifty* cents per square (not exceeding 20 lines,) for the first insertion, and 25 cents for each succeeding week—or $1 for three weeks, for one square.—A liberal discount will be made to those who advertise by the year. ☞ On all advertisements communicated for publication, the number of insertions must be noted on the margin of the manuscript, or they will be continued until forbid, and charged accordingly.

☞ All communications to the Editors must come free of *postage*, or they may not be attended to.

NOTICE.

ALL Persons indebted to the estate of Jonas Rudisill, dec'd. either by Note or Book account, are for the last time requested to make payment, as indulgence can no longer be given.

JAMES C. RUDISILL, *Ex'or.*

Aug. 11, 1831. 3t49

WILLKINGS & Co.

Commission Merchants & Forwarding Agents,

FAYETTEVILLE, N. C.

OFFER their services in every branch of their Business. They have large and convenient Ware-Houses, and are well prepared to receive Cotton and other Produce, which will be forwarded or sold, as may be directed.

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8t50

MY HOUSE, (the Post-office) on the Cross street, a few yards north-west of the Court-House, in *Lexington, N. C.* is again opened for the reception of Travellers & Boarders. The stables are extensive, roomy and dry; grain and provender of the best, plentiful, and served by good hostlers. The house has many comfortable rooms, serves a good table and refreshments; and the proprietor and his family will omit nothing in their power to make it most quiet and agreeable.

19tf B. D. ROUNSAVILLE.

DIVISION ORDERS.

HEAD-QUARTERS,
SALISBURY, JULY 14, 1831.

THE 4th Division of the North-Carolina Militia will be reviewed at the following times and places:

The first and second Regiments of Montgomery, No. 60 and 61, at Henderson, on Saturday, the 10th of September.

The Regiments of Mecklenburg, No. 68 and 69, at Charlotte, on Tuesday, the 13th of September.

The Regiment of Cavalry attached to the 11th Brigade, at the same time and place.

[illegible] on Thursday, the 15th of September.

The Salisbury Regiment, No. 63, in Salisbury, on Saturday, the 17th of September.

The Iredell Regiments, No. 52 and 89, at Statesville, on Tuesday, the 20th of September.

The Mocksville Regiment, No. 64, at Mocksville, on Thursday, the 22d of September.

The Stokes Regiments, No. 65 and 66, at Germanton, on Saturday, the 24th of September.

The Rockingham Regiments, No. 67 and 91, at Wentworth, on Monday, the 26th of September.

The Guilford Regiments, No 57 and 58, at Greensborough, on Wednesday, the 28th of September.

The Regiment of Cavalry attached to the 8th Brigade, at Greensborough, on the 28th of September.

The Davidson Regiments, No. 87 and 88, at Lexington, on Friday, the 30th of September.

It will be expected of Brigadier Generals, *Bethel, Kerr* and *Allen*, that they will attend the reviewing officer through a part of their respective Brigades.

By order of Major General T. G. POLK.

A. TORRENCE, } *Aides-de-Camp.*
T. B. SMARTT, }

WARRANTEE DEEDS

FOR SALE AT THIS OFFICE.

WEAR AND TEAR.

Of all classes of operatives, whether scriveners or weavers, lawyers or shoemakers, they are the greatest slaves whose minds are continually toiling without adequate alternation of exercise in the open air. By all such, the following description, being an extract from *Dr.* Johnson's late work, entitled, "Change of Air in the Pursuit of Health, &c.," will be acknowledged as just and appropriate. [*Journal of Health.*

"There is a condition or state of body and mind, intermediate between that of sickness and health, but much nearer the former than the latter, to which I am unable to give a satisfactory name. It is daily and hourly felt by tens of thousands in this metropolis, and throughout the empire; but I do not know that it has ever been described. It is not curable by physic, though I apprehend that it makes much work for the doctors ultimately, if not for the undertakers. It is that WEAR AND TEAR of the living machine, mental and corporeal, which results from over-strenuous labour or exertion of the corporeal powers, conducted in anxiety of mind and in bad air. It bears some analogy to the state of a ship, which, though still sea-worthy, exhibits the effects of a tempestuous voyage, and indicates the propriety of re-caulking the seams and overhauling the rigging. It might be compared to the condition of the wheels of a carriage, when the tyres begin to moderate their close embrace of the wood-work, and require turning. Lastly, it bears no very remote similitude to the strings of a harp, when they get relaxed by a long series of vibrations, and demand bracing up."

(From the N. E. Farmer.)

ON THE HORSE AND OX.

BY PRESIDENT MADISON.

I cannot but consider it as an error in our husbandry, that oxen are too little used in place of horses.

Every fair comparison of the expense of the two animals, favors a preference of the ox. But, the circumstance particularly recommending him, is that he can be supported when at work, by grass and hay: while the horse requires grain, and much of it, and the grain generally given him is Indian corn, the crop which requires most labor, and greatly exhausts the land.

From the best estimate I have been enabled to form, more than one-half of the corn crop is consumed by horses, including the ungrown ones; and not less than one-half, by other than pleasure horses. By getting free from this consumption, one-half of the labor and of the wear of the land would be saved, or rather more than one-half. For on most farms, one-half of the crop of corn grows on not more than two-fifths, and sometimes a smaller proportion of the cultivated fields; and the more fertile fields would of course be retained for cultivation. Every one can figure to himself the ease and convenience of a revolution, which would so much reduce the extent of his cornfields: and substitute for the labor bestowed on them, the more easy task of providing pasturage and hay.

But will not the ox himself, when kept at labor, require grain food as well as the horse? Certainly much less, if any. Judging from my own observation I should say, that a plenty of good grass or good hay, will suffice without grain, where the labor is neither constant nor severe. But I feel entire confidence in saying, that a double set of oxen alternately at work, and therefore half the time at rest, might be kept in good plight without other food than a plenty of good grass or good hay. And as this double set would double the supply of beef, tallow and leather, a set off is found in that consideration for a double consumption of that kind of food.

The objections generally made to the ox, are, viz: 1. That he is less tractable than the horse. 2. That he does not bear heat as well. 3. That he does not answer for the single plough used in our cornfields. 4. That he is slower in his movements. 5. That he is less fit for carrying the produce of the farm to market.

The first objection is certainly founded in mistake. Of the two animals, the ox is the most docile. In all countries where the ox is the ordinary draught animal, his docility is proverbial. His intractibility, where it exists, has arisen from an occasional use of him only with long and irregular intervals; during which, the habit of discipline being broken, a new one is to be formed.

The second objection has but as little foundation. The constitution of the ox accommodates itself, as readily as that of the horse, to different climates. Not only in ancient Greece and Italy, but throughout Asia, as presented to us in ancient history, the ox and the plough are associated. At this day, in the warm parts of India and China, the ox, not the horse, is in the draught service. In every part of India, the ox always appeared, even in the train of her armies. And in the hottest parts of the West Indies, the ox is employed in hauling the weighty produce to the sea ports. The mistake here, as in the former case, has arisen from the effects of occasional employment only, with no other than green food. The fermentation of this in the animal, heated by the weather, and fretted by discipline, will readily account for his sinking under his exertion; when green food even, much less dry, with a sober habit of labor, would have no such tendency.

The third objection also, is not a solid one. The ox can, by a proper harness, be used singly as well as the horse, between the rows of Indian corn: and equally so used for other purposes. Experience may be safely appealed to on this point.

In the fourth place, it is alleged that he is slower in his movements. This is true; but in a less degree than is often taken for granted. Oxen that are well chosen for their form, are not worked after the age of about eight years, (the age at which they are best fitted for beef) are not worked too many together, and are suitably matched, may be kept to nearly as quick a step as the horse. May I not say, a step quicker than that of many horses we see at work, who, on account of their age or the leanness occasioned by the costliness of the food they require, lose the advantage where they might have once had it!

The last objection has most weight. The ox is not so well adapted as the horse to the road service, especially for long trips. In common roads, which are often soft, and sometimes suddenly become so, the form of his foot and the shortness of his leg, are disadvantages; and on roads frozen or turnpiked, the roughness of the surface in the former case, and its harshness in both cases, are inconvenient to his cloven hoof.—But where the distance to market is not great, where the varying state of the roads and of the weather, can be consulted; and where the road service is in less proportion to the farm service, the objection is almost deprived of its weight. In cases where it most applies, its weight is diminished by the consideration, that a much greater proportion of service on the farm may be done by oxen, than is now commonly done; and that the expense of shoeing them, is little different from that of keeping horses shod. It is observable, that when oxen are worked on a farm, over rough frozen ground, they suffer so much from the want of shoes, however well fed they may be, that it is a proper subject for calculation, whether true economy does not require for them that accommodation, even on the farm, as well as for the horse.

A more important calculation is—whether in many situations, the general saving by substituting the ox for the horse would not balance the expense of hiring the carriage of the produce to market. In the same scale with the hire, is to be put the value of the grass and hay consumed by the oxen; and in the other scale, the value of the corn, amounting to one-half of the crop, and of the grass and hay consumed by the horses. Where the market is not distant, the value of the corn would certainly pay for the carriage of the market portion of the crop, and balance moreover, any difference between the value of the grass and hay consumed by oxen, and the value of the oxen when slaughtered for beef. In all these calculations, it is doubtless proper not to lose sight of the rule, that farmers ought to avoid paying others for doing what they can do for themselves. But the rule has its exceptions: and the error, if it be committed, will lie not in departing from the rule, but in not selecting aright the cases which call for the departure. It may be remarked, that the rule ought to be more or less general, as there may be, or may not be at hand, a market by which every produce of labor is convertible into money. In the old countries, this is much more the case than in new; and in new, much more the case near towns, than at a distance from them. In this as in most other parts of our country, a change of circumstance is taking place, which render every thing raised on a farm more convertible into money than formerly; and as the change proceeds, it will be more and more a point for consideration, how far the labor in doing what might be bought, could earn more in another way, than the amount of the purchase. Still it will always be prudent, for reasons which every experienced farmer will understand, to lean to the side of doing rather than hiring or buying what may be wanted.

The mule seems to be the point of economy, between the ox and the horse, preferable to the latter, and inferior to the former; but so well adapted to particular services, that he may find a proper place on many farms. He is liable to the objection which weighs most against the ox. He is less fitted than the horse for road service.

(From the New England Farmer.)

ANECDOTES OF SHEEP.

BY THE FITTRICK SHEPHERD.

The sheep has scarcely any marked character save that of natural affection, of which it possesses a very great share. It is otherwise a stupid, indifferent animal, having few wants and fewer expedients. The old black faced, or forest breed, have far more powerful capabilities than any of the finer breeds that have been introduced into Scotland, and therefore the few anecdotes that I have to relate shall be confined to them.

I have heard of sheep returning from Yorkshire to the Highlands. This is certain, that when one, or a few sheep, get away from the rest of their acquaintances, they return homeward with great eagerness and perseverance. I have lived beside a drove road the better part of my life, and many stragglers have I seen bending their steps northward in the spring of the year. A shepherd rarely sees these journeyers twice. If he sees them, and stops them in the morning, they are gone long before night; and if he sees them at night they will be gone many miles before morning. This strong attachment to the place of their nativity is much more predominant in our aboriginal breed, than in any of the other kinds with which I am acquainted.

A shepherd in Blackhouse bought a few sheep from another in Crawmel, about ten miles distant. In the spring following, one of the ewes went back to her native place, and yeaned on a wild hill called Crawmill Craig. On a certain day about the beginning of July following, the shepherd went and brought home his ewe and lamb—took the fleece from the yew, and kept the lamb for one of his stock. The lamb lived and throve, and never offered to leave home, but when three years of age, and about to have her first lamb she vanished; and the morning after the Crawmel shepherd, in going his rounds found her with a new-yeaned lamb on the very gair of the Crawmel Craig, where she was lambed herself. She remained there till the first week of July, the time when she was brought a lamb herself, and then she came home with hers of her own accord; and this custom she continued annually with the greatest punctuality as long as she lived. At length her lambs, when they came of age, began the same practice, and the shepherd was obliged to dispose of the whole breed.

But with regard to their natural affection, the instances that might be mentioned are without number, stupid and actionless creatures as they are. When one loses its sight in a flock of short sheep, it is rarely abandoned to itself in that hapless and helpless state. Some one always attaches itself to it, and by bleating calls it back from the precipice, the lake, the pool, and all dangers whatever.

There is another manifest provision of nature with regard to these animals, which is, that the more inhospitable the land is on which they feed, the greater their kindness and attention to their young. I once herded two years on a wild and bare farm, called Willenslee, on the border of Mid Lothian, and of all the sheep I ever saw, these were the kindest and most affectionate to their young. I was often deeply affected at scenes which I witnessed there. We had one very hard winter, so that our sheep grew lean in the spring, and the thwarter-ill, (a sort of paralytic affection) came among them, and carried off a number. Often have I seen these poor victims when fallen down to rise no more, even when unable to lift their heads from the ground, holding up the leg, to invite the starving lamb to the miserable pittance that the udder still could supply. I had never seen aught more painfully affecting.

It is well known that it is a custom with shepherds, when a lamb dies, if the mother have sufficiency of milk, to bring her in and put another lamb to her. I have described the process somewhere else—it is done by putting the skin of the dead lamb upon the living one, the eye immediately acknowledges the relationship, and after the skin has warmed on it, so as to give it something of the smell of her own progeny, and it has sucked two or three times, she accepts and nourishes it as her own ever after. Whether it is from joy at this apparent reanimation of her young one, or a little doubt remaining on her mind that she would fain dispel, I cannot decide, but, for a number of days, she shows far more fondness, more bleating, and caressing, over this one, than she did formerly over the one that was really her own.

But this is not what I wanted to explain; it was, that such sheep as thus lose their lambs must be driven to a house with dogs, so that the lamb may be put to them; for they will only take it in a dark confined place. But here, in Willenslee, I never need to drive home a sheep by force, with dogs, or in any other way than the following:—I found every ewe, of course, standing hanging her head over her dead lamb, and having a piece of twine with me for the purpose, I tied that to the lamb's neck or toes, and trailing it along, the ewe followed me into any house or fold that I chose to lead her. Any of them would have followed me in that way for miles, her nose close on the lamb, which she never quitted for a moment, except to chase the dog, which she would not suffer to walk near me. I often, out of curiosity, led them in to the side of the kitchen fire by this means, into the midst of servants and dogs, but the more the dangers multiplied around the ewe, she clung the closer to her dead offspring, and thought of nothing but protecting it.

TOADS.

There are few parts of the animal creation that are looked upon with more contempt than *toads*; and yet they are capable of ministering to the comfort and convenience of man. One reason why we look upon them with so much contempt is, that we form our opinions of them, as we are too apt to do with our own species, altogether by outward appearances, without inquiring into their good or bad qualities. We confess that there is nothing very inviting in the outward appearance of one of these animals; but when we make ourselves more acquainted with their habits, our dislike of them ceases, for in this it is as in politics—we laud that man who is working for us, whom we would treat with contempt in another situation. Toads, during the summer months feed almost entirely upon insects, and in the ordinary course of their feeding the number destroyed is quite considerable. Mr. Bradley, in his treatise on husbandry and gardening, states that, a pair of sparrows, during the time they have their young, destroy 3,360 caterpillars each week, or 240 for each bird daily. Now if we make comparison between the size of a toad and a sparrow, and allow that a given weight of either requires a given quantity of food for a certain period, we must suppose that the number of insects devoured by toads, is very great. We have frequently seen it recommended to put toads in gardens to preserve young cucumber plants from the striped bug. They are not effectual for that purpose, as the bug does most damage during the heat of the day; at which time the toad either burrows himself in the ground, or seeks some other retreat from the rays of the sun.

They are, however, very useful at the same time for other purposes. The brown worms which destroy the cabbage plants, do their mischief in the night, at which time the toads are on the alert; and if a sufficient number of them are put in a garden, they will protect the cabbage. But it is during the months of July and August that these animals will be found of the greatest use to the gardener. Although the melon, cucumber and squash vines during these months, are of that size that the yellow bugs cannot entirely destroy them, yet they continue to feed and multiply upon them in a compound ratio, and in this neighborhood the large black brown bugs often become so numerous upon squashes as entirely to check the growth of the vines.—Where gardens are fenced with boards and tight, a few toads put in will entirely destroy those bugs, which if left would be sure to appear in an abundance the following spring.

It has been recommended to place small pieces of boards about one inch from the ground, supported upon small stones, in that quarter of the garden where the labors of these animals are wanted, as they will take shelter from the sun, under them; but after cabbage leaves have attained their size, they afford them sufficient covering.

It is of as much importance and benefit to the succeeding crop that insects should be destroyed as weeds, for although insects are furnished with wings, there is reason to believe that they deposit their eggs near the place where they feed, as we frequently observe that fields which have been a few years in grass, when ploughed and planted with vines, that they are not eaten with bugs although contiguous to gardens or old fields where they are very injurious.

The Origin of Chimneys.—Notwithstanding all the magnificence of the Greek and Roman architecture, which we yet behold with admiration amongst the ruins which remain as records of their talents and genius, we are yet to learn whether or no they had chimneys in their dwellings.

In the mean time it is as difficult to imagine that the Romans, who taught us how to build, were not possessed of some means of preserving their elegant mansions from smoke; mansions in which every refinement in luxury was to be found. How can we possibly believe that they, the slaves of pleasure, should suffer their apartments to be choked up by suffocating smoke?—Could the Major-domos of their houses prepare in smoking dwellings those exquisite and sumptuous dishes which so often loaded their epicurean tables?

It is not, certainly, amongst the imperfect ruins of city walls, temples, amphitheatres, baths, aqueducts and bridges, that we may expect to find chimneys; but at Herculaneum, for example, private dwellings have been discovered. However, there have not been found any traces of chimneys. Paintings and pieces of sculpture, which have escaped the ravages of time, throw no light whatever on the subject; there is nothing to be seen which has the least resemblance to what we call a chimney.

If chimneys existed in the time of the Romans, Vitruvius would not certainly have failed to describe the manner in which they were constructed; he says not a word concerning them; neither does Julius Pollux, who has collected together, with the most scrupulous care, the Greek names given to every part of their dwellings; nor Gadulphus, who, in his time, (which was not so far back,) has left a vocabulary of all the Latin terms made use of in architecture.

There were no chimneys in the tenth, twelfth, and thirteenth centuries, which seems fully proved by the *curfew bell* * of the English and the Romans. At the time of the middle ages, they made their fires in a kind of furnace, which was obliged to be covered at the time of going to rest. Towards that period, it was ordered, that every fire should be extinguished at a certain hour in the evening.

The first mention of chimneys was in 1347, at a period in which Venice experienced the shock of an earthquake which threw down a great many. Gataris says, in his History of Padua, that Francisco de Gararera, lord of Padua, came to Rome in 1308; and that not finding a chimney in the inn where he lodged, he obliged them to have one constructed by masons and carpenters, whom he caused to be sent for from the neighbourhood where he resided. These were the first chimneys ever seen at Rome, and the arms of the nobleman was placed above them to commemorate so great an event.

* Not originally of the English, but introduced by William the conqueror; not, as has been unjustly asserted of him, that he feared the plots of the English, but it was an ancient Norman custom, and the bell, still called *Couvrefeu*, in spite of the revolution, even now rings or tolls at about nine o'clock in several towns in Normandy, to warn against fire, &c.

The swiftness of time is past similie—the conceptions of man can scarcely keep pace with its constant innovations.